

# CMPUT 466/566: Machine Learning, Winter 2024

## Tutorial 3

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### 1 Multivariate Calculus

**Definition 1** (partial derivative). For a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , and standard Euclidean basis  $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^d$ , if the following limit of function exists at  $a$ , we say  $f$  has partial derivative w.r.t.  $x_i$  at  $a$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + he_i) - f(a)}{h}.$$

We denote the above limit by  $\frac{\partial f(a)}{\partial x_i}$  or  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f(a)$ .

*Remark 1.* In this course, it is ok to treat everything else as a constant and only take derivative w.r.t. the target variable.

**Example 1.** Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $f(x) = a^\top x$ . Then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f(x) = \frac{\partial}{\partial} \left( \sum_{j=1}^d a_j x_j \right) = a_i.$$

**Definition 2** (gradient). For a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , assume the partial derivatives of  $f$  all exist in a neighborhood of  $x$  and are also continuous at  $x$ . Then  $f$  is differentiable and its gradient satisfies

$$\nabla_x f(x) = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)^\top = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_d} \end{bmatrix}$$

**Example 2.** Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $f(x) = a^\top x$ . Then  $\nabla_x f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \left( \sum_{i=1}^d a_i x_i \right) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^d a_i x_i \right) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_d} \left( \sum_{i=1}^d a_i x_i \right) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_d \end{bmatrix}$

**Definition 3** (Jacobian). For a differentiable function  $f \in \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ , let the output of function be  $(f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x))^\top$  the Jacobian of the function is defined as

$$J_f(x) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x} \end{bmatrix}$$

**Proposition 1** (Chain rule). Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $g : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$  are both differentiable with Jacobians  $J_g(f(x))$  and  $J_f(x)$ . Then the derivative

$$\frac{\partial g \circ f}{\partial x} = \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{\partial g(f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x))}{\partial f_j(x)} \frac{\partial f_j(x)}{\partial x}.$$

**Proposition 2.** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $g : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$  are both differentiable with Jacobians  $J_g(f(x))$  and  $J_f(x)$ . Then  $g \circ f$  has Jacobian  $J_{g \circ f}(x) = J_g(f(x))J_f(x)$ .

*Proof.* By definition of function composition,  $g \circ f$  is a function that maps from  $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ . As usual, we denote the output of  $g \circ f$  as  $((g \circ f)_1(x), \dots, (g \circ f)_p(x))^\top$ . Then the  $j$ -th element in the  $i$ -th row of the Jacobian of  $J_{g \circ f}$  is that

$$\begin{aligned} [J_{g \circ f}(x)]_{ik} &= \frac{\partial (g \circ f)_i}{\partial x_k} \\ &= \frac{\partial g_i(f(x))}{\partial x_k} \\ &= \frac{\partial g_i(f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x))}{\partial x_k} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{\partial g_i(f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x))}{\partial f_j(x)} \frac{\partial f_j(x)}{\partial x_k} & (\text{Chain rule}) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^m [J_g(f(x))]_{ij} [J_f(x)]_{jk} \\ &= [J_g(f(x))J_f(x)]_{ik} \end{aligned}$$

□

**Definition 4** (Hessian). Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be twice differentiable, the Hessian is defined to be

$$\nabla^2 f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_d} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_d \partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_d^2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

If  $f$  is twice continuously differentiable, then  $\nabla^2 f(x)$  is symmetric.

## 2 Convex Analysis

**Definition 5** (Convex set). A set  $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  is convex if for all  $x, y \in V$  and  $\gamma \in (0, 1)$ , we have that  $\gamma x + (1 - \gamma)y \in V$ .

*Remark 2.* See [Wikipedia on convex sets](#) for examples of convex sets.

**Definition 6** (Convex function). A function  $f : V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is convex if  $V$  is a convex set and for all  $x, y \in V$ ,  $f(\gamma x + (1 - \gamma)y) \leq \gamma f(x) + (1 - \gamma)f(y)$ .

For definitions of neighborhood, open set, interior and some simple examples, please refer to the appendix.

**Proposition 3** (First order condition). Assume  $f : \mathcal{V} \subset \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable in the interior of  $V$ , which we denote by  $V^\circ$ , then  $f$  is convex if and only if for all  $x \in V, y \in V^\circ$

$$f(y) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^\top (y - x)$$

*Remark 3.* The reason why we introduce the interior is because  $f$  cannot be differentiable on the boundary. Think about if a function  $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  can be differentiable on the endpoint ( $a$  or  $b$ ).

**Proposition 4** (Second order condition). Assume  $f : V \subset \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is twice-continuously-differentiable in the interior of  $V$ , which we denote by  $V^\circ$ , then  $f$  is convex if and only if for all  $x \in V$

$$\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq 0$$

**Definition 7** (Local minima). For a function  $f : V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $x^* \in V$  is a local minima of  $f$  if there exists a neighborhood  $\mathcal{U} \subseteq V$  of  $x^*$  such that for all  $y \in \mathcal{U}$ ,  $f(y) \geq f(x^*)$ .

**Definition 8** (Global minima). For a function  $f : V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $x^* \in V$  is a global minima of  $f$  if for all  $y \in V$ ,  $f(y) \geq f(x^*)$ .

**Proposition 5.** For a convex function  $f : V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Any local minima of  $f$  is a global minima.

**Proposition 6** (Condition 1 for minima). For a function  $f : V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable on  $V^\circ$ . Then if  $x^*$  is a local minima of  $f$  then

$$\nabla f(x^*) = 0.$$

Furthermore, if  $f$  is convex, then  $x^*$  is a global minima of  $f$  if and only if

$$\nabla f(x^*) = 0.$$

**Proposition 7** (Condition 2 for minima). For a function  $f : V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be twice-continuously-differentiable on  $V^\circ$ . If  $\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq 0$  for  $x$  in a neighborhood of  $x^*$ . Then  $x^*$  is the local minima of  $f$  if and only if

$$\nabla f(x^*) = 0.$$

### 3 Appendix

Let  $\|\cdot\|$  be a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  and consider the space  $(\mathbb{R}^d, \|\cdot\|)$ .

**Definition 9** (Neighborhood). For a point  $v \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\mathcal{U}$  is called a neighborhood of  $v$  if  $v \in \mathcal{U}$  and there exists  $r > 0$  such that the open ball centered at  $v$  with radius being  $r$  subsets  $\mathcal{U}$ .

$$B(r) := \{x : \|x - v\| < r\} \subseteq \mathcal{U}$$

*Remark 4.* For example, an open ball centered at  $v$  is a neighborhood of  $v$ . This is a generalization of open interval in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Think about  $\mathbb{R}$ , the neighborhood of  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  is an open interval that contains  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 10** (Open set). A set  $\mathcal{V} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  is an open set if for all  $v \in \mathcal{V}$ , there exists a neighborhood  $\mathcal{U}_v$  of  $v$  such that  $\mathcal{U}_v \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ .

*Remark 5.* An open ball centered at  $v$  is an open set. Think about  $\mathbb{R}$ , an union of open intervals,  $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{I}_i$  where  $\mathcal{I}_i$  are open intervals, is an open set. In fact, all open sets in  $\mathbb{R}$  can be written as the union of open intervals.

**Definition 11** (Interior). For a set  $\mathcal{V} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ , the interior  $\mathcal{V}^\circ$  is the set of points that have a neighborhood that subsets  $\mathcal{V}$ , that is,

$$\mathcal{V}^\circ = \{x \in \mathcal{V} : \exists \mathcal{U}_x \text{ neighborhood of } x \text{ s.t. } \mathcal{U}_x \subseteq \mathcal{V}\}.$$

*Remark 6.* Picture whatever closed shape in your mind, for example, a heart. Then exclude the boundaries, every point inside forms the interior of that shape. For a closed ball,

$$K(r) := \{x : \|x - v\| \leq r\},$$

the interior is  $B(r)$ . Think about  $\mathbb{R}$ , the interior of a closed interval is just the open interval version of it (which is the largest open interval subsets it) and the interior of  $\mathbb{N}$  is empty.

**Definition 12** (Boundary). For a set  $\mathcal{V} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ , the boundary of  $\mathcal{V}$ , which we denote by  $\partial\mathcal{V}$ , is  $\partial\mathcal{V} := \mathcal{V} \setminus \mathcal{V}^\circ$ .